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## Intercomparison study of NO<sub>x</sub> passive diffusion tubes with chemiluminescence analysers and evaluation of bias factors

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### Highlights

- Passive diffusion tubes (PDTs) are a simple method to monitor air pollutants.
- NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs are influenced by factors causing bias.
- Negative bias in total NO<sub>x</sub> capture was observed in polluted environments.
- Positive bias for PDTs was observed in PDTs exposed to wind.
- At low NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations and when PDTs are sheltered, PDTs should perform well.

## Abstract

Passive diffusion tubes (PDTs) are a cheap and simple method to monitor air pollutants. Numerous studies have investigated the performance of PDTs for NO<sub>2</sub> but little attention has been paid to PDTs for NO<sub>x</sub>. The aim of this study was to evaluate the performance of NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs in three different urban environments. Duplicate NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs were co-located with chemiluminescence analysers at kerbside, urban centre and background sites in the city of Glasgow for twelve 1-week exposures. PDT measurements generally showed good temporal correlations with NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> determined by the continuous analysers. However detailed evaluation showed PDT measurements were variously influenced by factors causing bias, according to individual site characteristics: positive bias in both NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs due to wind-associated shortening of diffusion path; positive bias in NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs due to within-tube chemical reaction between NO and O<sub>3</sub>; and, where NO concentrations were high, negative bias in NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs assumed due to incomplete oxidation of NO by the in-cap oxidising granules. In conclusion, where ambient NO<sub>x</sub> is low (less than a few tens of  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), and PDTs are in sheltered locations, NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs should perform well over 1-week exposures; however substantial negative bias for NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs is expected in polluted roadside environments for exposures of several weeks as is usually the case in ambient air quality deployment. Observations from this study suggest that sheltering PDTs from high wind is important to minimise positive bias due to wind-associated shortening of the diffusion path.

Key words: nitrogen oxides; passive samplers; diffusion tubes; air pollution monitoring

## 1 Introduction

The gases nitrogen dioxide ( $\text{NO}_2$ ) and nitric oxide ( $\text{NO}$ ) (collectively referred to as nitrogen oxides ( $\text{NO}_x$ )) play a key role in atmospheric chemistry contributing to the formation of secondary air pollutants including ozone ( $\text{O}_3$ ) and peroxyacyl nitrate (PAN) (Marston, 1999).  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$  are powerful oxidants and have been associated with adverse health effects and mortality in epidemiological studies (Bell et al., 2005; Neurberg et al., 2007; Latza et al., 2009).  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations are used as a tracer of traffic-related air pollution (Harrison et al., 2003) and have been found to be highly correlated with particle number concentrations (Ketzel et al., 2003; Harrison and Jones, 2005), which has been identified as an important causative agent of the health effects produced by particles. Emissions of  $\text{NO}_x$  also contribute to environmental acidification (AQEG, 2004) and the reactive nitrogen cascade (Galloway et al., 2008).

As a consequence of all the above, monitoring of  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations is required for the investigation of the extent of air pollution and the evaluation of measures to improve air quality. In contrast to automatic analysers which require elaborate infrastructure and maintenance, passive diffusion samplers are a cheap and simple method to measure air pollutants. They operate on the principle of molecular diffusion whereby molecules of the target species (e.g.  $\text{NO}_2$ ) diffuse down the concentration gradient from the ambient concentration at the open end of the sampler to the effective zero concentration adjacent to the surface of the absorbent (triethanolamine (TEA) for  $\text{NO}_2$ ) within the sampler, into which they are irreversibly trapped as nitrite.

The Palmes-type passive diffusion tube (PDT) (Palmes et al., 1976) is widely deployed across the UK and elsewhere to provide indicative measurement of average  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration. The PDT consists of an acrylic tube of length 7.1 cm and internal diameter 1.1 cm, two opaque polyethylene caps and two stainless steel grids. The grids are placed at the closed end of the PDT, coated with the absorbent. Factors affecting the performance of  $\text{NO}_2$  PDTs have been investigated in numerous studies, reviewed recently by Cape (2009), and include:

(1) Within-tube reaction between co-diffusing  $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{O}_3$  leading to overestimation of  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations. The magnitude of this bias depends on the relative concentrations of atmospheric  $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{O}_3$  at the exposure location (Heal and Cape, 1997; Kirby et al. 2000). Although this bias can be substantially negated by using tubes of UV-transmitting material

such as quartz (Heal et al. 1999), so that UV light conditions within the tube match those in the surrounding ambient air (UV light photolyses  $\text{NO}_2$ ), commercial PDTs remain constructed of non UV-transmitting material (usually acrylic).

(2) Wind turbulence at the open end of the tube causing a shortening of the effective path length and a sampler uptake rate higher than the diffusion-only uptake rate on which PDT theory is based (Campbell et al., 1994; Glasius et al., 1999; Bush et al., 2001). This leads to overestimation of  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations. Sheltered tubes have shown lower overestimation compared with unsheltered tubes (Kirby et al., 2000).

(3) The duration of the exposure, with PDT-derived  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations decreasing for longer exposure periods, i.e. 4-week and 2-week exposures yield less trapped nitrite at analysis than from the sum of constituent 1-week exposures (Heal et al., 2000, Bush et al., 2001).

(4) Preparation method: dipping the stainless steel meshes results in higher precision and  $\text{NO}_2$  uptake than pipetting the absorbent on the meshes (Hamilton and Heal, 2004; Heal, 2008).

(5) Variation in relative humidity (and temperature) causing variation in uptake rate and in stoichiometry of conversion to nitrite at the absorbent. This has been investigated experimentally (e.g. Plaisance et al., 2004; Buzica et al., 2005) and reviewed by Cape (2009) but with no clear evidence for extent of significance under UK ambient conditions (Cape, 2009).

It is also possible to measure  $\text{NO}_x$  using Palmes-type PDTs by incorporating an oxidant just behind the mesh containing the absorbent for  $\text{NO}_2$  which oxidises the NO to  $\text{NO}_2$  which is then also trapped by the  $\text{NO}_2$  absorbent. The average ambient NO in the air can be derived from the difference between co-exposed  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  PDTs. However, very little attention has been paid in the literature to Palmes-type  $\text{NO}_x$  PDTs in the urban setting. The study by Vardoulakis et al. (2009) reported considerable underestimation by  $\text{NO}_x$  PDTs compared with chemiluminescence analyser measurements at two roadside and one background site in Birmingham for 4 and 5 week exposure periods but did not make detailed comment on their findings in respect of the known bias factors highlighted above.

This study reports on the comparison of  $\text{NO}_x$  PDT measurements with co-located chemiluminescence analyser in three different urban environments in the city of Glasgow, but with 1-week exposure periods to minimise potential confounding by exposure-duration negative bias.

## 2 Methods

### *2.1 Sampler characteristics and preparation*

All tube components and the oxidant granules were obtained from Gradko International Ltd. In the NO<sub>x</sub> tubes the red cap containing the grids has an open end over which is fitted an outer black cap containing the oxidant granules held in place by a further stainless steel grid (Figure 1). The NO<sub>2</sub> absorbent for both types of tubes was prepared by dipping the grids in a solution of 50% TEA in acetone as described by Hamilton and Heal (2004). For the NO<sub>x</sub> tubes  $0.500 \pm 0.001$  g of the supplied oxidant was weighed on a Sartorius MC5 balance and added to the extra black cap.

### *2.2 Monitoring sites and sampling strategy*

Duplicates of both NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs were exposed in parallel for twelve 1-week periods between 22 May and 11 August 2007 at three monitoring stations in Glasgow, UK, with different influences from primary sources. Previous unpublished work by our research team has shown good precision (RSD <8.0 %) for duplicate exposures. All sites are in central Glasgow and are part of the national automatic air pollution network operated by the UK Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs. Full site details are available at [www.airquality.co.uk](http://www.airquality.co.uk), so only brief description is given here.

The kerbside monitoring station is located on Hope St. (55° 51' 30' N, 4° 15' 11'' W), which has an average traffic density of ~25,000 vehicles/day and is frequently congested with buses and taxis. Four-storey buildings on both sides form a symmetric street canyon. The site at St. Enoch Sq. (55° 51' 84' N, 4° 15' 45'' W), now designated urban background but previously designated urban centre, is located in a pedestrianised square and is 20 m from the nearest main road which has an average traffic density of ~20,000 vehicles/day. The third site, also designated as urban background, is located in Montrose St. (55° 51' 22', 4° 14' 44'' W) with sampling at third-storey level. Montrose St. is a four-storey street canyon containing substantial traffic which causes it to have higher NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations than those typically expected for an urban background site, and higher in fact, on average, than the NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations at the St. Enoch Sq. site (as demonstrated by the results from this study and from the long-term analyser records at these two sites).

At Hope St. and St. Enoch Sq. the PDTs were mounted ~3 m above the ground, on the side of the monitoring station, and on an inlet duct protruding above the monitoring station, within 0.5 m and 0.7 m, respectively, of the continuous analyser inlets. At Montrose St. the PDTs were approximately 12 m above the ground, located within a window recess, 0.2 m from the gas analyser inlet. In all cases, no additional sheltering of the tubes was provided. Three NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> field blank tubes (i.e. tubes which remained capped whilst at the site) were also mounted each week.

The NO<sub>x</sub> chemiluminescence analysers at each site are regularly maintained and calibrated (AEA, 2009) and have an uncertainty within 15% (at 95% confidence level) as required by EU Directives.

### 2.3 Sampler chemical analysis

After exposure, the open end of each tube was capped and the black and red cap in the NO<sub>x</sub> tubes was changed to a conventional closed grey cap. Tubes were double wrapped in plastic bags and stored at 4 °C until analysis, within 2 weeks.

The trapped nitrite in each PDT was extracted with deionised water and quantified by the standard sulphanilamide and N-1-naphthyl ethylene diamine dihydrochloride colorimetric method described in Heal (2008) with reference to a calibration graph constructed from standard nitrite solutions. The collected mass of nitrite was converted into ambient gas concentration using rearrangement of Fick's law (Equation 1),

$$Q = D_{12} \frac{(C_1 - C_0)At}{L} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

where  $Q$  is the mass of trapped nitrite (ng),  $D_{12}$  is the molecular diffusion coefficient of gas 1 in gas 2 (cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) (i.e. molecular diffusion of NO<sub>2</sub> in air in the case of the NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs and molecular diffusion of NO in air for that portion of nitrite mass in NO<sub>x</sub> tubes not accounted for by the nitrite mass in the parallel NO<sub>2</sub> tube),  $A$  is the cross-sectional area of the tube (cm<sup>2</sup>),  $L$  is the length of the tube (cm),  $t$  is the length of exposure period (s),  $C_1$  is the average concentration of the gas at the open end of the tube over the exposure period (ng cm<sup>-3</sup>) and  $C_0$  is the concentration of the gas at the absorbent, which is assumed to be zero. Values of NO<sub>2</sub> and NO diffusion coefficients were calculated for the mean temperature of each exposure period using the temperature-dependent formulae provided by Massman (1998), and the mean

temperature measured at the Bishopton weather station ~18 km from central Glasgow. (Data from the British Atmospheric Data Centre, [www.badc.ac.uk](http://www.badc.ac.uk)).

Since chemiluminescence analyser data are reported to a temperature of 293 K, for comparison with the EU Limit Values and UK Air Quality Standard Objectives (Defra, 2008), all PDT-derived NO<sub>2</sub>, NO and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations in this work were likewise corrected to a temperature of 293 K (Equation 2) using the average temperature  $T$  during the exposure.

$$C_{293} = C_T \frac{T}{293} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

#### 2.4 Model-simulated PDT NO<sub>2</sub>

For PDT exposures at St. Enoch Sq., where hourly average concentrations of O<sub>3</sub> were also available, it was possible to model the positive bias in NO<sub>2</sub> concentration that a NO<sub>2</sub> PDT would record when allowing for the within-tube reaction between NO and O<sub>3</sub> also present in the ambient air during an individual exposure. Details of the numerical model and its use in other PDT exposure studies have been given elsewhere (Heal and Cape, 1997; Heal et al., 1999; Heal et al., 2000). The model consists of a discretised continuity equation which includes data on diffusion and reaction for NO<sub>2</sub>, NO and O<sub>3</sub>. The boundary conditions at the open end of the tube are the hourly concentrations measured by the automatic analyser. For NO<sub>2</sub> the boundary condition at the adsorbent is modelled as an infinite sink, whereas there is no such boundary condition for NO and O<sub>3</sub> as these species do not complex with TEA.

#### 2.5 Data analysis

The precision of the PDT data was assessed by calculating the % relative standard deviation (RSD) of each pair of duplicate measurements. The correlation coefficient between the duplicates was calculated to assess linearity.

Linearity of the relationship between PDT and chemiluminescence analyser values was evaluated by linear correlation between the mean concentration of a duplicate PDT pair and the average over the exposure period of the hourly concentrations measured by the co-located chemiluminescence analyser. PDT accuracy was expressed as % bias with respect to the chemiluminescence analyser,  $\frac{C_D - C_A}{C_A} \times 100$ , where  $C_D$  and  $C_A$  are the PDT and analyser



concentrations, respectively. Paired t-tests were used to assess whether differences in concentrations were statistically significant.

### 3 Results

#### *3.1 Precision, quality assurance and limit of detection*

Replicate measurements were available for 35 out of 36 NO<sub>x</sub> PDT duplicates (1 tube was vandalised) and for all 36 NO<sub>2</sub> PDT duplicates. The mean ( $\pm$  1 SD) RSD of duplicate measurements was  $3.5 \pm 3.8\%$  for NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs and  $5.9 \pm 6.9\%$  for NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs. The correlation coefficients between replicates were 0.99 for NO<sub>x</sub> tubes and 0.98 for NO<sub>2</sub> tubes, both highly statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ). These precision data are well within normal expectations for duplicate PDT exposures. For example, mean RSDs of 7.9% and 3.8% were reported, respectively, by Heal et al. (1999) for 4-week exposures and by Kirby et al. (2000) for 2-week exposures.

Leakage around the end caps and any possible contamination during the preparation and analysis of the tubes was tested by preparation and analysis of both laboratory blanks and field blanks. One-week equivalent NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in both types of blanks were always below  $2.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . The limit of detection of the method, defined as the mean of the concentration found in the field blank tubes plus three times the SD of the blanks, was calculated to be equivalent to  $6.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  NO<sub>2</sub>.

#### *3.2 Accuracy of the PDTs*

Table 1 gives the summary statistical data for accuracy in determination of NO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and NO concentrations by PDT at the three sites. Scatter plots of PDT vs. analyser concentrations for NO<sub>x</sub> and for NO<sub>2</sub> are shown in Figures 2 and 3, respectively.

The relationship between NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations derived from the PDTs and those averaged from the chemiluminescence analyser varied widely between site, with mean PDT biases of  $-2\%$ ,  $+55\%$  and  $-14\%$  at Hope St., St. Enoch Sq. and Montrose St., respectively. Paired t-tests confirmed significant differences between PDT and analyser measurements at the latter two sites but not at Hope St. (Table 1). The PDT-derived NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were substantially

higher than corresponding analyser concentrations at Hope St. (mean bias +46%) and at St. Enoch Sq. (mean bias +80%), but not significantly different at Montrose St. (mean bias -2%).

The biases between the NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs and analyser measurements were systematic as indicated by the highly significant correlations between the two measurement methods for both analytes at all three sites (Table 1 and Figures 2 and 3), all *p* values <0.01. The linearity between PDT and analyser was better for NO<sub>2</sub> (*R* values in the range 0.87-0.96) than for NO<sub>x</sub> (*R* values in the range 0.73-0.87), and at Hope St. compared with the other two locations, although differences in *R* values for different gases and sites will also depend on the different ranges of numerical values in some of the datasets.

The measured PDT NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at St. Enoch Sq. compared with the values simulated to be measured by the PDT when allowing for the within-tube reaction between co-diffusion NO and O<sub>3</sub> are shown in Figure 4. The model simulates a mean within-tube chemistry bias at this site of 28%, ranging between 19% and 36% across the 12 exposures. The time series shows highly significant correlation between the actual and predicted PDT NO<sub>2</sub> (*R* = 0.89, *p* <0.01) but with the former values being 41% higher on average than the latter.

NO concentrations derived by difference between PDT NO<sub>x</sub> and PDT NO<sub>2</sub> exhibited significant negative biases of -24% and -31%, on average, at Hope St. and Montrose St., respectively, but small mean positive bias of +9% at St. Enoch Sq., (Table 1). These relative bias values hide the fact that NO concentrations varied substantially across the three sites; mean NO concentrations across all exposures at Hope St., St. Enoch Sq. and Montrose St. were 96.2 8.2 and 19.0 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, respectively. Therefore the negative biases at individual exposures at Hope St. correspond to underestimates in absolute NO concentrations of several tens of µg m<sup>-3</sup>.

#### **4 Discussion**

The strong correlations between PDT and analyser measurements for NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> across a range of ambient concentrations indicate that the PDT methodology can track well the exposure-to-exposure changes in the concentrations of these species. The observed biases of the PDT measurements are therefore systematic in nature. As indicated in the introduction,

PDTs for NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> are potentially subject to a number of biases. The sources of these biases act independently of each other so the net effect on the measured variable is additive. Inspection of the PDT-analyser comparisons presented here allow inferences on the presence and magnitudes of these biases in this study and, in fact, suggest varying PDT performance characteristics across the three sites.

The presence of a significant within-tube generation of additional NO<sub>2</sub> will, on its own, lead to positive bias in PDT NO<sub>2</sub> value, and to a similar absolute negative bias in PDT-derived NO value for that exposure, but has no effect on PDT NO<sub>x</sub> value because the biases result from a change in the split between NO and NO<sub>2</sub> within total NO<sub>x</sub>. A wind-induced diffusion-path shortening will cause the same relative positive biases in the PDT determinations of each of NO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and NO. Similarly, any exposure-dependent degradation of trapped nitrite will (if following first-order behaviour) cause the same relative negative biases in the PDT determinations of each of NO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and NO. A further potential source of bias is failure to oxidise all NO reaching the inner end of the tube into NO<sub>2</sub>. This will lead to the same absolute negative bias in PDT-derived NO<sub>x</sub> and NO, but (in the absence of other factors) no bias in the NO<sub>2</sub> derived from the parallel NO<sub>2</sub>-only PDT.

Substantial positive bias (overestimation) of NO<sub>2</sub> by PDT was observed at St. Enoch Sq. and Hope St. (80% and 46% on average, respectively). As shown in Figure 4, overestimation amounting to 28%, on average, at St. Enoch Sq. can be accounted for by within-tube reaction between ambient NO and O<sub>3</sub> at that location. The additional NO<sub>2</sub> PDT overestimation (52% on average) is the net positive bias from wind-induced shortening of diffusion path less any exposure-duration loss of trapped nitrite. These two factors will act the same relatively on PDT NO<sub>x</sub> measurements at this site, and in fact PDT NO<sub>x</sub> measurements are observed to have a positive bias of 55%, on average, consistent with the bias of +52% inferred from the PDT NO<sub>2</sub> data (particularly allowing for the fact that values quoted are averages over 12 exposures, i.e. averages of ratios do not necessarily equal ratios of averages).

The within-tube reaction between NO and O<sub>3</sub> contributing positive bias to NO<sub>2</sub> PDT measurements at this St. Enoch Sq. site necessarily contributes negative bias to PDT-derived NO values. A +28% increase, on average, in NO<sub>2</sub> from within-tube chemical reaction corresponds to an additional 6.4 µg m<sup>-3</sup> NO<sub>2</sub> above the mean analyser-measured NO<sub>2</sub> of 22.7 µg m<sup>-3</sup>. This in turn corresponds to the chemical conversion into NO<sub>2</sub> of 4.1 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, on

average, of the mean analysed-measured NO of  $8.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , i.e. to an associated average negative bias in PDT NO measurement due to the within-tube chemical reaction factor of  $-50\%$ . However, the derivation of PDT NO will also be subject to the same net positive bias from wind and exposure-duration effects as the NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> PDT derivations at this site, which from above has been inferred to be  $\sim 52\text{-}55\%$ . Since the net effect of all these factors acting on PDT NO measurement are additive, the anticipated average net bias is approximately in the range  $+2$  to  $+5\%$ , again very close to the actual observed average net bias of  $+9\%$  in NO PDT measurement at St. Enoch Sq. Although interpretation of the impacts of these bias factors is fully consistent between the datasets, it is clear that the PDTs at St. Enoch Sq. were subject to substantial wind-induced bias. In a comparison of 1, 2 and 4-week exposures, Heal et al. (2000) estimated an exposure-duration dependent loss term of  $\sim 5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ h}^{-1}$  which yields a negative bias over 1-week exposure of  $\sim -8\%$ . Applying this value to the St. Enoch Sq. exposures yields an estimate for wind-induced bias at this location of  $\sim 55\text{-}60\%$ . Glasgow, located on the West of Scotland, is one of the most wind exposed urban areas in the UK, and the St. Enoch Sq. monitoring station is in the middle of a relatively open square, with the PDTs mounted at 3 m height without shelter on an air intake duct.

Since hourly NO and O<sub>3</sub> data were not available at the Hope St. and Montrose St. sites the NO<sub>2</sub> PDT chemistry bias at those sites cannot be exactly quantified. However, O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are likely to be low at the kerbside location of Hope St., where mean analyser NO and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over the 12 weeks of exposure were  $96$  and  $66 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , so within-tube chemistry relative bias for NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs at Hope St. will be much lower than the mean chemistry relative bias of  $28\%$  simulated at St. Enoch Sq. (Figure 4). Likewise, the higher NO and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at Montrose St. (means of  $19.0$  and  $38.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , respectively) than at St. Enoch Sq. ( $8.2$  and  $22.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) will lead to lower within-tube chemistry bias to NO<sub>2</sub> PDT at Montrose St. From unpublished simulations of chemical biases in NO<sub>2</sub> PDT measurements at other urban sites in the UK that have hourly O<sub>3</sub>, NO and NO<sub>2</sub>, the chemical biases at Hope St. and Montrose St. are likely to be in the region of  $+5\text{-}10\%$  and  $+10\text{-}15\%$ , respectively.

The lack of positive bias in NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> PDT measurements at Montrose St. (Table 1 and Figures 2 & 3) indicate that wind-related positive bias does not appear to be an issue at this site; as noted earlier these samplers were positioned in a sheltered second-floor window recess not subject to wind, or to air turbulence from passing traffic. The agreement, on

average, between PDT and analyser for NO<sub>2</sub> at Montrose St. (Table 1 and Figure 3) is the net result of the small positive chemical bias and small exposure-duration negative bias, both anticipated (as discussed above) to be of magnitude around 10%. The under-read of NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs at Montrose St. (Figure 2) confirms the presence of a small exposure-duration negative bias. An estimate of 10% NO<sub>2</sub> PDT over-read due to within-tube chemical reaction corresponds to an average additional NO<sub>2</sub> of 3.9 µg m<sup>-3</sup> on an average analyser-measured NO<sub>2</sub> of 39 µg m<sup>-3</sup>. This in turn corresponds to an average loss of 2.5 µg m<sup>-3</sup> NO, or to a negative bias due to within-tube chemistry for NO PDT of -13%. This within-tube chemistry negative bias is additive with the exposure-duration negative bias and accounts for the larger negative bias overall for the NO PDT measurements at Montrose St. compared with the NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> PDT measurements. Again there is consistency in the interpretation of magnitudes of the various contributing biases in the dataset at this site.

As at St. Enoch Sq., the NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs at Hope St. over-read by more than can be accounted for by within-tube chemistry (Figure 3) which again indicates the presence of positive bias from wind-induced turbulence. Estimating, as above, that within-tube chemical bias to NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs at Hope St. was ~+5-10%, and exposure-duration negative bias was -10%, then the observed NO<sub>2</sub> PDT over-read of 46% implies ~45-50% positive bias due to wind turbulence at this site. This is consistent with the kerbside location of these samplers where the high density of bus and other traffic passing by within a metre or two keeps air in motion. The magnitude of positive bias from wind turbulence will apply equivalently to NO<sub>x</sub> and NO PDT measurements at Hope St., but NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs show no over-read on average, whilst PDT-derived NO has 24% under-read, on average, at this site (Table 1). Some NO PDT negative bias will result from the small amount of within-tube reaction anticipated between NO and O<sub>3</sub> and exposure-duration negative bias. However, the fact the PDT-derived NO has negative bias despite the inferred substantial wind turbulence positive bias implicates incomplete oxidation of NO to NO<sub>2</sub> by the oxidising granules in the NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs for the high ambient NO conditions at this location. The curvature in the Hope St. data points in Figure 2 corresponding to exposures with highest NO<sub>x</sub> (and NO) concentrations is consistent with greater shortfall in NO<sub>x</sub> capture at highest NO concentrations. Continuing the estimation of effect magnitudes, the negative bias due to incomplete granule oxidation of NO must be of the order of 60% at the high NO and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations at Hope St. in order to account for the observations. There are also indications from the Montrose St. dataset of a small incomplete granule

oxidation of NO even for the ambient NO concentrations present at that site, although any such effect is not great.

In summary, quantitative inspection of the data has revealed the following. At Montrose St. (urban background) within-tube chemical bias is not a major factor, there is no evidence of wind-induced turbulence bias, but evidence for exposure-duration negative bias and possibly some incomplete granule oxidation of NO at the highest NO concentrations experienced at this site. Overall, NO<sub>x</sub> PDT performance is satisfactory at this site to well within the uncertainty tolerances of  $\pm 15\%$  and  $\pm 25\%$  specified for continuous analyser and diffusion tube measurements, respectively (EU, 2008). At St. Enoch Sq. (urban background) there is substantial within-tube chemical positive bias for NO<sub>2</sub> PDTs, and consequent negative bias for NO PDTs, and clear evidence of substantial wind-induced positive bias for NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> PDT measurements. Overall, however, once the various biases are recognised and deconvoluted it appears that NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs do appropriately measure the NO<sub>x</sub> at this site, albeit with the additional large bias associated with the net effect of large wind-induced positive bias and small exposure-duration negative bias at this site, i.e. there is expectation that if the former bias were eliminated then NO<sub>x</sub> PDT measurement would be close to analyser values. At Hope St. (kerbside) the apparent satisfactory performance of NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs actually arises from opposing large positive bias from wind-induced turbulence and large negative bias from failure at high NO concentrations for the granules to oxidise all NO to NO<sub>2</sub> at this exposed and polluted kerbside site. Therefore NO<sub>x</sub> PDT performance was not satisfactory at this site.

The one previous study of NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs, by Vardoulakis et al. (2009), was carried out over 4 and 5 week exposure periods at one urban background and two roadside sites in Birmingham. The negative biases of NO<sub>x</sub> PDT to analyser concentrations were much greater than observed in this study (means of  $-34\%$  for the background site and  $-79\%$  and  $-49\%$  for the roadside sites). One important factor contributing to the PDT negative bias not evaluated by Vardoulakis et al. is the exposure-duration dependent under-read for their much longer exposure periods, as has been previously reported (Kirby et al., 2000; Heal et al., 2000; Bush et al., 2001). As in the current study, Vardoulakis et al. (2009) observe NO<sub>x</sub> PDT under-read at roadside sites with high ambient NO and also suggest as explanation incomplete oxidation of NO to NO<sub>2</sub> by the in-cap granules in high NO environments. However, the very substantial NO<sub>x</sub> PDT under-reads for the 4 and 5 week exposures at the roadside sites also points to

additional exposure-duration dependent loss of performance of the NO oxidation granules over these extended exposure periods at polluted sites.

## 5 Conclusions

For 1-week exposures, the NO<sub>x</sub> (and NO<sub>2</sub>) PDTs were shown to have satisfactory precision and generally correlated very well with temporal changes in NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> as determined by co-located continuous analysers.

However, detailed evaluation of the results showed that PDT measurements at some sites were variously influenced by factors causing bias, in particular: positive bias in NO<sub>2</sub> PDT values (but not in NO<sub>x</sub> PDT values) due to within-tube chemical reaction between NO and O<sub>3</sub>; and positive bias presumed due to wind-induced turbulence for PDTs in exposed locations, which impacts on both NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs equivalently. In addition, it was evident that where NO concentrations were very high, NO<sub>x</sub> PDT values were subject to substantial negative bias due to incomplete oxidation of NO by the in-cap oxidising granules. This factor does not impact on NO<sub>2</sub> PDT values.

In conclusion, where ambient NO<sub>x</sub> is low (less than a few tens of  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and PDTs are in sheltered locations, the NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs should perform well, and for the right reasons, over 1-week exposures, i.e. a bias within the  $\pm 25\%$  data quality objective specified by the EU for indicative measurements (EU, 2008), making these devices a simple, environmentally-friendly method of assessing trends in NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations. However, evidence discussed in this work indicates likely substantial negative bias in total NO<sub>x</sub> capture by NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs in exposed polluted roadside environments, particularly for exposures of several weeks, as is usually the case for ambient air quality deployment. In rural areas, the majority of NO<sub>x</sub> is NO<sub>2</sub> so there is very unlikely to be any problem with incomplete oxidation of NO to NO<sub>2</sub> in a NO<sub>x</sub> PDT at such locations.

Further investigation of the relative merits of locating the PDTs in shelters, and/or use of a mesh across the open end, is recommended for eliminating bias due to wind-associated shortening of the diffusion path. However the shelters and meshes should not entirely impede air movement at the entrance of the tube. Further research is required to resolve the issue of the inefficient oxidation of NO observed in the NO<sub>x</sub> PDTs.

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## Tables

Table 1: Summary of mean  $\pm$ 1 SD PDT and analyser concentrations and of PDT-analyser pairwise correlations and biases for each of NO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and NO at the three sites. The number of exposures is 12 in each case. Bold font indicates significant result for correlation or paired t-test, with \* and \*\* signifying  $p < 0.05$  and  $p < 0.01$ , respectively.

		NO <sub>x</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	NO
<b>Kerbside (Hope St.)</b>	Analyser mean conc. / $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	212.5 $\pm$ 77.8	65.7 $\pm$ 19.5	96.2 $\pm$ 38.5
	PDTs mean conc. / $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	212.9 $\pm$ 51.1	104.9 $\pm$ 36.6	70.5 $\pm$ 17.6
	Correlation, $R$	<b>0.87**</b>	<b>0.96**</b>	0.41
	Mean bias	−2 %	+46 %	−24 %
	(Range)	(−34 to +22 %)	(+30 to +61 %)	(−71 to +11 %)
	$p$ -value, paired t test	0.208	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.010</b>
<b>Urban Centre (St. Enoch Sq.)</b>	Analyser mean conc. / $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	35.1 $\pm$ 5.3	22.7 $\pm$ 4.1	8.2 $\pm$ 1.4
	PDTs mean conc. / $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	58.6 $\pm$ 10.2	44.0 $\pm$ 8.6	9.5 $\pm$ 4.5
	Correlation, $R$	<b>0.77**</b>	<b>0.90**</b>	0.51
	Mean bias	+55 %	+80 %	+9 %
	(Range)	(+36 to +82 %)	(+58 to +101 %)	(−45 to +58 %)
	$p$ -value, paired t test	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.000</b>	0.358
<b>Urban Background (Montrose St.)</b>	Analyser mean conc. / $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	67.7 $\pm$ 9.5	38.9 $\pm$ 6.9	19.0 $\pm$ 2.6
	PDTs mean conc. / $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	61.4 $\pm$ 7.9	39.2 $\pm$ 5.9	14.5 $\pm$ 2.5
	Correlation, $R$	<b>0.73**</b>	<b>0.87**</b>	0.13
	Mean bias	−14 %	−2 %	−31 %
	(Range)	(−29 to −4 %)	(−11 to +16 %)	(−53 to −11 %)
	$p$ -value, paired t test	<b>0.000</b>	0.359	<b>0.000</b>

## Figures

Figure 1: Schematic representation of the NO<sub>x</sub> PDT.

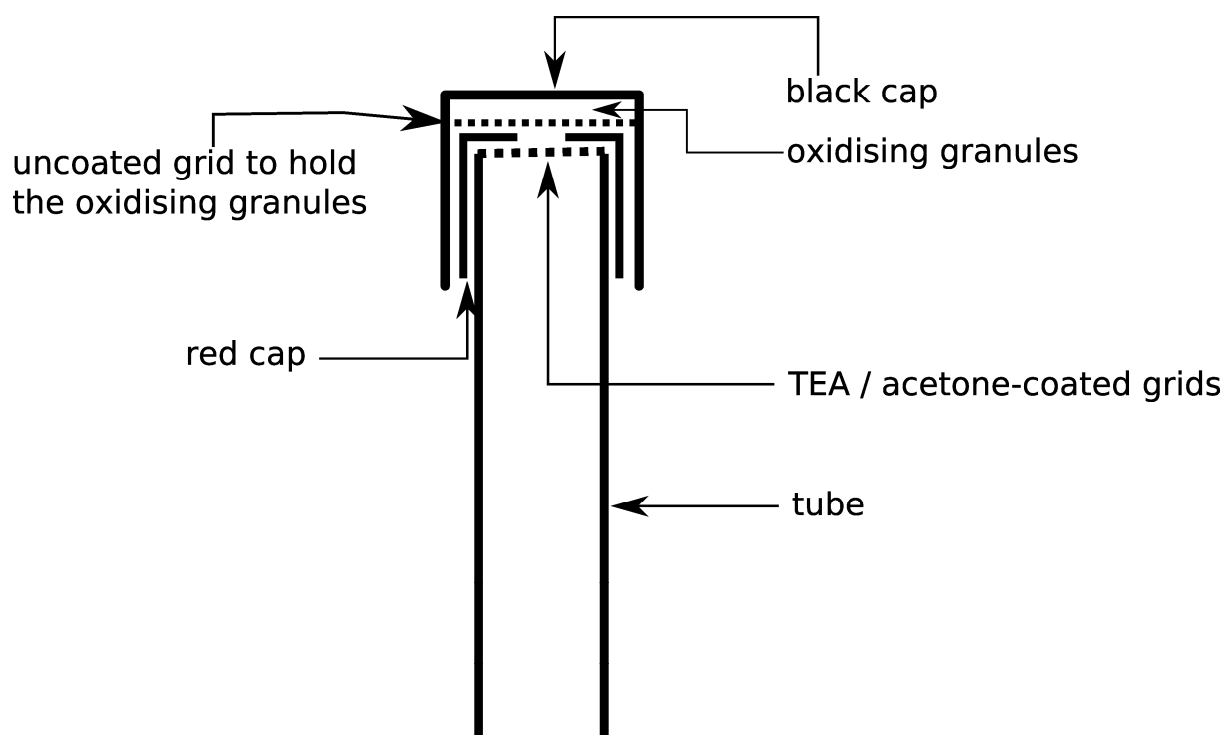


Figure 2: Scatter plot of PDT and analyser  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations for 1-week exposures at the 3 sites.

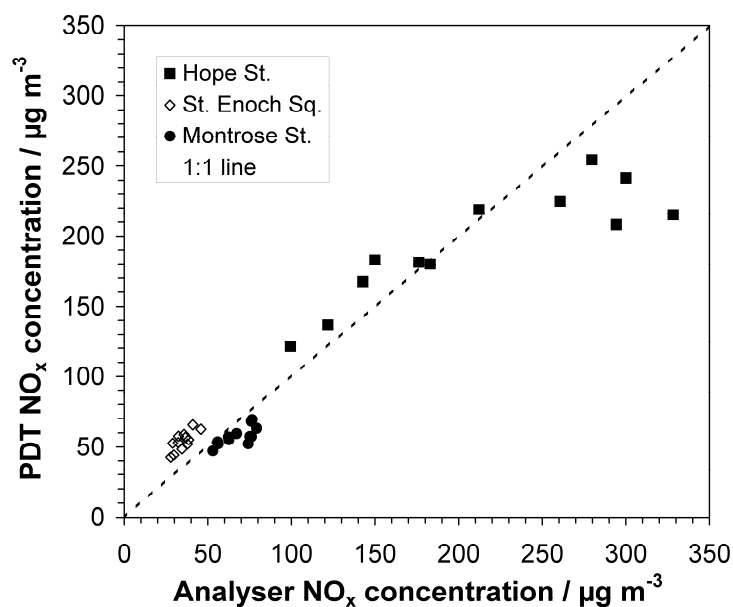


Figure 3: Scatter plot of PDT and analyser  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations for 1-week exposures at the 3 sites.

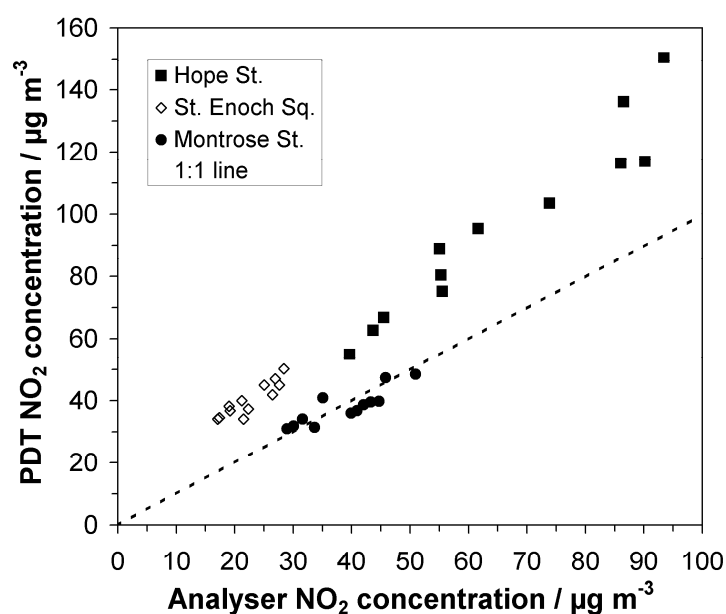


Figure 4: Time series at the St. Enoch site of analyser  $\text{NO}_2$ , PDT  $\text{NO}_2$  and model-simulated PDT  $\text{NO}_2$  allowing for within-tube reaction between  $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{O}_3$  in the ambient air during the exposure.

